

THE CHARITIES REVIEW.

A JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL SOCIOLOGY.

JOHN H. FINLEY, Editor.

MRS. ISABEL C. BARROWS, Conference Editor.

The Charities Review does not assume responsibility for the opinions expressed by its contributors

VOL. V. No. 5.



MARCH, 1896

ANNOUNCEMENT OF THE TWENTY-THIRD NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

THE Twenty-third Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in Grand Rapids June 4 to 10, 1896. It is expected that the attendance will exceed that of any preceding meeting. The enrollment of members up to date is nearly twice that at the same date in 1895.

GRAND RAPIDS.

The place of meeting is a city of phenomenal growth and history. Its population has doubled every ten years until it has now, with its suburbs, about 100,000 inhabitants.

Grand Rapids has 89 churches, 3 daily and 25 other papers, 10 banks, 54 miles of electric street railway, 10 railroad lines, 86 institutions employing help in manufacturing, 3 parks, the largest furniture factories in the world and plenty of excellent hotels. James G. Blaine once said: "It is the biggest city of its size in the country."

Grand Rapids is about five hours' ride from Chicago and the same distance from Detroit. It has a delightful June climate. Its people are noted for their hospitality and enterprise. The local committee is admirably organized, with efficient sub-committees, and will neglect nothing which can be done for the success of the Conference and the comfort of its members.

The local committee is organized as follows:

Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, Local Member of National Executive Com.

CHAIRMEN OF LOCAL COMMITTEES.

General Reception.....	Hon. Harvey J. Hollister
Finance.....	Hon. Wm. H. Anderson
Printing and Badges.....	Hon. Wm. J. Stuart
Entertainment and Comfort.....	Hon. J. W. Blodgett
Hotels, Headquarters and Halls.....	Wesley W. Hyde, Esq.
Press.....	Hon. E. B. Fisher
Local Transportation.....	Hon. L. C. Storrs
General Arrangements. {Alfred O. Crozier, Esq., Chairman
Walter L. Cosper, Secretary
Hon. J. A. S. Verdier, Treasurer

Address all communications to Chairman of Committee of General Arrangements.

HOTEL ACCOMMODATIONS.

The hotel accommodations of Grand Rapids are unusually good. The local committee have secured the following rates for the Conference:

Morton House.—American plan; “a first-class hotel, the largest in the city;” 60 rooms at \$2.50 per day; 60 rooms at \$3.00; 40 rooms at \$3.50. Fifty rooms have bath rooms attached and some twenty are suites—parlor, bedroom and bath room. These rooms with parlor will be charged for at the rate of \$4.00 per day. For rooms, address Pantlind & Co., proprietors.

The Livingston.—American plan; “a first-class hotel;” 96 rooms at \$2.00; 31 rooms at \$2.50; 15 rooms with parlor and bath, \$3.00 and \$3.50 per day. Where two persons occupy one bed there will be a discount of fifty cents per day for each person from the above rates, except the \$2.00 rate. It will be noticed that most of the rooms have been placed at the lowest rate. For rooms, address Sydney Steele, proprietor.

Sweets Hotel.—American plan; “a fine hotel, complete in all of its appointments; ranks with \$2.50 hotels.” This hotel has 110 rooms with 140 beds, and offers a uniform rate of \$2.00 per day for room and board. There are 10 rooms with bath room attachment. For two persons occupying the same bed the rate will be \$1.50 each. For rooms, address J. E. Rice, proprietor.

Hotel Warwick.—A family hotel (temperance). "A pleasant and comfortable house." It has 60 rooms with 75 beds. Three rooms have bath room attached and there are bath rooms on each floor for the use of guests without charge. Rate, \$1.50 per day with board. For two persons occupying one bed the rate will be \$1.25 per day. For rooms, address Gen. D. R. Pierce, proprietor.

Eagle Hotel.—American plan. This hotel has been well known for many years as a first-class \$2.00 a day temperance house. Its rates have recently been reduced to \$1.00 per day. "It is a thoroughly clean, spacious hotel, with good table and is as good or better than the ordinary \$2.00 house." One hundred rooms with 108 beds, \$1.00 per day. Bath rooms for use of guests, 25 cents per bath. For rooms, address J. K. Johnston, proprietor.

All of the above mentioned hotels are centrally located, near the place of meeting and can be reached from the depot by electric cars.

Bridge Street House.—American plan. "The hotel has a good reputation." Forty-five rooms at \$1.00; 30 rooms at \$1.25. Baths without extra charge. Located about eight blocks from the Morton House. For rooms, address E. Fullerton, proprietor.

The Clarendon.—American plan. Fifty-one rooms at \$1.00; 25 rooms at \$1.25. Baths without extra charge. Located about eight blocks from the Morton House. For rooms, address H. W. Melenbacker, proprietor.

Accommodations can be furnished at first-class boarding houses, centrally located, at low rates.

The rates above mentioned are offered both to delegates and to their friends.

If delegates prefer they may write to the chairman of the Committee of Arrangements, who will do his best to locate them satisfactorily. The committee request that in any case those who engage rooms at any hotel notify the committee on hotels, as it will greatly assist them in making assignments and securing proper treatment to those in attendance.

Address A. O. Crozier, chairman committee of arrangements, Grand Rapids, Mich.

HEADQUARTERS.

At the Pythian Temple Building, (First Floor) Opposite the Morton House—Business Headquarters, Registration Office and Postoffice.

At the Morton House—General Headquarters: State Boards of Charities, Officers of Institutions for the Feeble-Minded; Hospitals for Insane and Merit System in Public Institutions.

At Sweet's Hotel—Soldiers' and Sailors' Homes and Charity Organization Sections and the National Anti-Tramp Society.

At the Livingston—Child-Saving Section and Juvenile Reformatory Section.

At the Warwick—Social Settlements and Scientific Study of Social Problems Sections.

At the Eagle Hotel—Municipal and County Charities, City and County Officers.

MEMBERSHIP.

There has been a remarkable increase of the membership during the past year. The number enrolled in 1893 was 286; in 1894, 326; in 1895, 923 (not including members enrolled by the local committee). We hope to enroll at least 1,200 members of the Conference of 1896.

You are earnestly invited to become a member of the Conference, whether you expect to attend this year or not. The annual membership fee is \$2.50, which entitles each member to a bound copy of the annual Proceedings, a handsome volume of about 500 pages, to THE CHARITIES REVIEW for one year, and to reduced railroad and hotel rates in case of attendance on the conference. There are no restrictions as to membership.

THE CHARITIES REVIEW is a monthly magazine of 60 pages, edited by President John H. Finley of Knox College, assisted by Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows of Boston, the official editor of the Conference, and is devoted to this department of sociology. Those sending in their memberships immediately will receive THE CHARITIES REVIEW from the beginning of the year.

Membership fees may be paid at Grand Rapids, but it will much facilitate the work of the registering secretary if you will forward your membership fee on the blank leaf attached, in advance. (See sheet opposite page 238.)

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CONFERENCE.

The Proceedings of the New Haven Conference (1895) is a volume of 575 pages, bound in cloth. It is of especial value. It contains a complete statistical directory of 450 state institutions; price \$1.50.

Sets of Proceedings—We have frequent applications for sets or single volumes of the Proceedings of former years, which we can furnish, bound in cloth, for \$1.50 per volume. (Five or more volumes \$1.25 each.) The first volume is that of 1874 and we can furnish all of the annual volumes except 1875, 1876, 1879 and 1880; but there is a very small supply of the volumes preceding 1887, except 1874 and 1884; therefore, those wanting sets should order at once.

New Series.—Those who cannot afford the whole set would do well to begin with the World's Fair volume of 1893. It contains an historical summary of the work of charities and correction up to that time, with an index of the preceding volumes. Its value is indicated by the fact that we have sold 350 copies of the Proceedings of 1893 since January 1, 1895.

In ordering, please use the blank sheet attached. (See sheet opposite page 238.)

SPECIAL OFFER—TO MEMBERS ONLY.

The Proceedings of the International Congress of Charities, held at Chicago in 1893, were published in five handsome cloth-bound volumes at \$7.50 for the set. We have had placed at our disposal a limited number of sets, except the volume of "Hospitals, Dispensaries and Nursing," which we can furnish *to our members only* at less than half price: namely, \$2.75 for the set of four volumes, or 75 cents for any single volume. The titles are as follows: (1) "The Organization of Charities;" (2) "The Insane, the Feeble-Minded and Criminals;" (3) "The Public Treatment of Pauperism;" (4) "The Care of Children and Sociology in Institutions of Learning." This offer is subject to withdrawal without notice. Members wishing to avail themselves of it will *please order at once.*

RAILROAD RATES.

Reduced railroad rates will be granted over the principal railroad systems of the United States and Canada. Applica-

tion has been made for a half-fare rate, which it is hoped will prove successful; but if not, the usual one and one-third fare rate will doubtless be secured. Full information will be given in the final announcement.

EXHIBITS.

The local committee invites superintendents of institutions to furnish exhibits of the industrial work of inmate, educational and administrative methods, photographs, plans of buildings, etc. The local committee will provide suitable space for such exhibits without charge; the expense of transportation and installation to be paid by the exhibitor. Application for space or information should be addressed to A. O. Crozier, Esq., Grand Rapids, Mich.

A SECOND ANNOUNCEMENT.

The final announcement of the Conference, with the full program and full information with reference to railroad rates, etc., will be published in the April number of THE CHARITIES REVIEW.

PROGRAM.

The following is an outline of the general program, subject to change:

THURSDAY, JUNE 4.

- 8:00 p. m. Addresses of Welcome and Responses. President's Annual Address; Public Reception.

FRIDAY, JUNE 5.

- 9:00 a. m. Section Meetings.
11:00 a. m. Soldiers and Sailors' Homes.
2:30 p. m. Section Meetings.
4:30 p. m. Committee Meetings.
8:00 p. m. The Merit System in Public Institutions.

SATURDAY, JUNE 6.

- 9:00 a. m. Section Meetings.
11:00 a. m. The Chronic Insane Poor.
2:30 p. m. Section Meetings.
4:30 p. m. Committee Meetings.
8:00 p. m. Juvenile Reformatories.

SUNDAY, JUNE 7.

- 10:30 a. m. The Conference Sermon.
2:30 p. m. Charity Organization.
8:00 p. m. Social Settlements in Cities.

MONDAY, JUNE 8.

- 9:00 a. m. Section Meetings.
- 11:00 a. m. Scientific Study of Social Problems.
- 2:30 p. m. Section Meetings.
- 8:00 p. m. Child-Saving.

TUESDAY, JUNE 9.

- 9:00 a. m. Section Meetings.
- 11:00 a. m. Municipal and County Charities.
- 2:30 p. m. Section Meetings.
- 4:30 p. m. Committee Meetings.
- 8:00 p. m. Prison Reform.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 10.

- 9:00 a. m. Section Meetings.
- 11:00 a. m. Care of the Feeble Minded.
- 2:30 p. m. Section Meetings.
- 8:00 p. m. Closing Exercises.

In addition to the standard subjects which are discussed from year to year, the program of 1896 will embrace several new topics:

The Merit System in Public Institutions will be discussed for the first time, under the chairmanship of Hon. Philip C. Garrett of Philadelphia, who is a distinguished advocate of this reform. The progress already made will be set forth and its applicability to public institutions will be discussed by such speakers as Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte of Baltimore, and Prof. C. R. Henderson of Chicago.

At the mass meeting on Sunday evening, the Sociological Features of the Labor Problem will be discussed.

A Committee on Social Settlements has been appointed; chairman, Miss Julia C. Lathrop of Hull House, Chicago. A large representation from the leading settlements is expected. Residence in poor districts has given them opportunity for close study of the problems of municipal life, the application of charity and preventive methods. The speakers will be such practical men and women as Dr. William Caldwell of Scotland, Dr. Graham Taylor of Chicago, Miss Katharine Davis of Philadelphia, and James B. Reynolds of New York. One general meeting and two sectional meetings will be held.

The Committee on the Scientific Study of Social Problems: Chairman, Rev. S. G. Smith, D. D., of St. Paul, lecturer on

Sociology in the Minnesota State University. This committee will enlist the coöperation of some of the leading university men of the country. The increased interest in sociological study has greatly increased our membership among educators, which includes representatives of Johns Hopkins, Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, Cornell, Wellesley, Western Reserve, Oberlin, Olivet, Chicago University, Colorado College, Leland Stanford University, the State Universities of Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota, and many other important institutions. The relation between the National Conference and the universities promises to be of great mutual benefit.

The Committee on Charity Organization: Chairman, Dr. Philip W. Ayres, Secretary of the Bureau of Charities of the city of Chicago. Among the topics to be discussed are "Charity as a Factor in Distribution" and "The Application of Ethics to Industry." An address is expected from C. S. Loch, Esq., General Secretary of the Charity Organization Society in London, England. The section meetings of this committee will be held partly in union with other sections for the discussion of topics of mutual interest.

The Committee on Municipal and County Public Charities: Chairman, Hon. J. H. Stout of Menominee, Wis. Heretofore the discussion of public charities has dealt chiefly with the work in large cities. This year special attention will be given to the work of superintendents of the poor, county commissioners, and other officers having charge of public relief in small cities and rural communities; also to the administration of county almshouses, county asylums, children's homes and other similar institutions. A section will be organized to discuss outdoor relief, almshouse administration and the tramp problem. The speakers will be people who are actively engaged in the work.

The Committee on the Care of the Chronic Insane Poor: Chairman, Dr. Samuel Bell, Superintendent of the Upper Peninsula Hospital for Insane, Newberry, Mich. Papers will be presented by Dr. Jules Morell of Ghent, Belgium, Dr. Hal C. Wyman of Detroit, Dr. William A. Gordon of Oshkosh, Wis., Dr. H. A. Tobey of Toledo, Percy Wade of Bal-

timore, and other prominent alienists. Special attention will be paid to the care of the insane in small institutions, and a section will be organized to discuss the details of the work.

The Committee on Child-Saving: Chairman, H. W. Lewis, agent of the Board of Children's Guardians of Washington, D. C. Chairman Lewis has arranged an admirable program, both for the general meeting and the five section meetings. A stereopticon will be used to illustrate the work. Among the speakers will be Rev. Walter Delafield of Chicago, Kate Waller Barrett, J. J. Kelso of Toronto, and Supt. Lyman P. Alden of Terre Haute.

The Committee on Juvenile Reformatories: Chairman, Supt. Franklin H. Briggs of the State Industrial School, Rochester, N. Y. The work of this committee, like that of the Child-Saving Committee, is especially attractive because of its relation to preventive work. Chairman Briggs is vigorously at work and it is expected that the sections will fully equal last year's meeting in interest. Supt. St. John, of the Michigan State Industrial School, expects to make arrangements to have the entire section visit his institution at Lansing.

The Committee on the Care of the Feeble-Minded: Chairman, Alexander Johnson, Superintendent of the Indiana School for Feeble-Minded Youth. The work of this committee has grown in interest with the advance of public sentiment relative to the care of the feeble-minded. Special interest will be taken in this meeting on account of the recent establishment of state institutions for the feeble-minded in Michigan and Wisconsin. The Association of Medical Officers of Institutions for Idiotic and Feeble-Minded Persons will hold its annual convention at Grand Rapids in conjunction with the National Conference and many of the superintendents will be present.

The Committee on Soldiers' and Sailors' Homes: Chairman, Hon. C. E. Faulkner of Atchison, Kan. The committee was first organized at the New Haven meeting. The Northwestern Soldiers' Home Association will meet at Grand Rapids in conjunction with the Conference and a large attendance of officers and trustees of soldiers' homes is expected. The

Michigan Soldiers' Home is located at Grand Rapids, which will contribute to the interest of the section and the enjoyment of its members. Papers will be presented by Commandant A. G. Smith, of Leavenworth, on "The Keely Cure;" by J. H. Woodnorth, U. S. Pension Agent, on "Pensions," and by Mrs. L. A. Bates, President of the Trustees of the Nebraska Soldiers' Home, on "The Woman's Relief Corps," together with other valuable papers.

THE SECTION MEETINGS.

With the growth of the Conference, enlargement of the section work has become necessary from year to year. Heretofore, most of the sections have met at the same hour, to the inconvenience of those who desired to attend more than one section. This year section meetings will be held from 9 to 11 a. m. and from 3 to 5 p. m., and as far as practicable related subjects will be put at different hours.

In addition to the usual sections on Charity Organization, Child-Saving and Juvenile Reformatories, sections will be organized on Social Settlements, Public Charities, Care of the Insane and the Scientific Study of Social Problems. The meetings of the Soldiers' Home Association, the officers of Institutions for Feeble-Minded and the Anti-Tramp Society will be independent of the Conference, but will be open to those members of the Conference who are especially interested in those subjects.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE OF 1896.

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H. E. Haines.....	Marshalltown, Del.
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C. J. Atkinson.....	Toronto, Can.
Rev. T. F. Slattery.....	Lansing, Mich.

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J. E. Heg.....	Lake Geneva, Wis.

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Hans B. Warner.....	Ellsworth, Wis.

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Joseph P. Byers.....	Columbus, Ohio
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Col. John Tracey.....	Washington, D. C.
Rev. Luther P. Ludden.....	Lincoln, Neb.
Thos. F. Ring.....	Boston, Mass.
Mrs. Mary A. T. Clark.....	Wilmington, Del.
Rev. S. W. Dike.....	Auburndale, Mass.
M. D. Follett.....	Marietta, Ohio
Dr. J. W. Walk.....	Philadelphia, Pa.
Rev. M. McG. Dana, D. D.....	Brooklyn, N. Y.

On the Merit System in Public Institutions.

Philip C. Garrett.....	Philadelphia, Pa.
George W. Johnson.....	Brookfield, Mass.
J. W. Patton.....	Asheville, N. C.
F. E. Leupp.....	Washington, D. C.
J. W. Babcock, M. D.....	Columbia, S. C.
J. Warner Mills.....	Denver, Colo.
William Howard Neff.....	Cincinnati, Ohio
Prof. Blackmar.....	Lawrence, Kansas
Frank N. Hartwell.....	Kentucky

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Maj. R. H. Dudley.....	Nashville, Tenn.
Gen. L. G. Rutherford.....	Grand Rapids, Mich.
Edgar B. Clough.....	Deadwood, S. Dak.
Maj. N. V. Randolph.....	Richmond, Va.
Dr. E. V. Stoddard.....	Rochester, N. Y.
Col. John Tracey.....	Washington, D. C.
Capt. H. A. Castle.....	St. Paul, Minn.
J. H. Woodnorth.....	Milwaukee, Wis.
Mrs. L. A. Bates.....	Grand Island, Neb.

You are earnestly invited to become a member of the Conference, whether you expect to attend this year or not. The annual membership fee is \$2.50, which entitles each member to a bound copy of the annual Proceedings, a handsome volume of about 500 pages, to THE CHARITIES REVIEW for one year, and to reduced railroad and hotel rates in case of attendance on the conference. There are no restrictions as to membership. Those sending in their memberships immediately will receive THE CHARITIES REVIEW from the beginning of the year. Membership fees may be paid at Grand Rapids, but it will much facilitate the work of the registering secretary if you will forward in advance your membership fee on the blank leaf opposite.

N. B.—THIS LEAF IS PERFORATED, TO BE DETACHED.

*MR. H. H. HART, General Secretary National Conference
of Charities and Correction, St. Paul, Minn.:*

Dear Sir:—I enclose herewith:

For Membership Fee for Year 1896, (including the volume of Proceedings of the Grand Rapids Conference and the "Charities Review" for one year) - - - - \$2.50

For the Proceedings for 18....., 18....., 18..... and 18.....
at \$1.50 - - - - -

Total amount remitted, - - - - - \$

Signed { Mr.
Mrs.
Miss
or Rev. }

If connected with any charitable, correctional, or educational board, organization, or institution, please state official or other relation thereto:

Official relation: ☐ *****

Name of institution or organization:

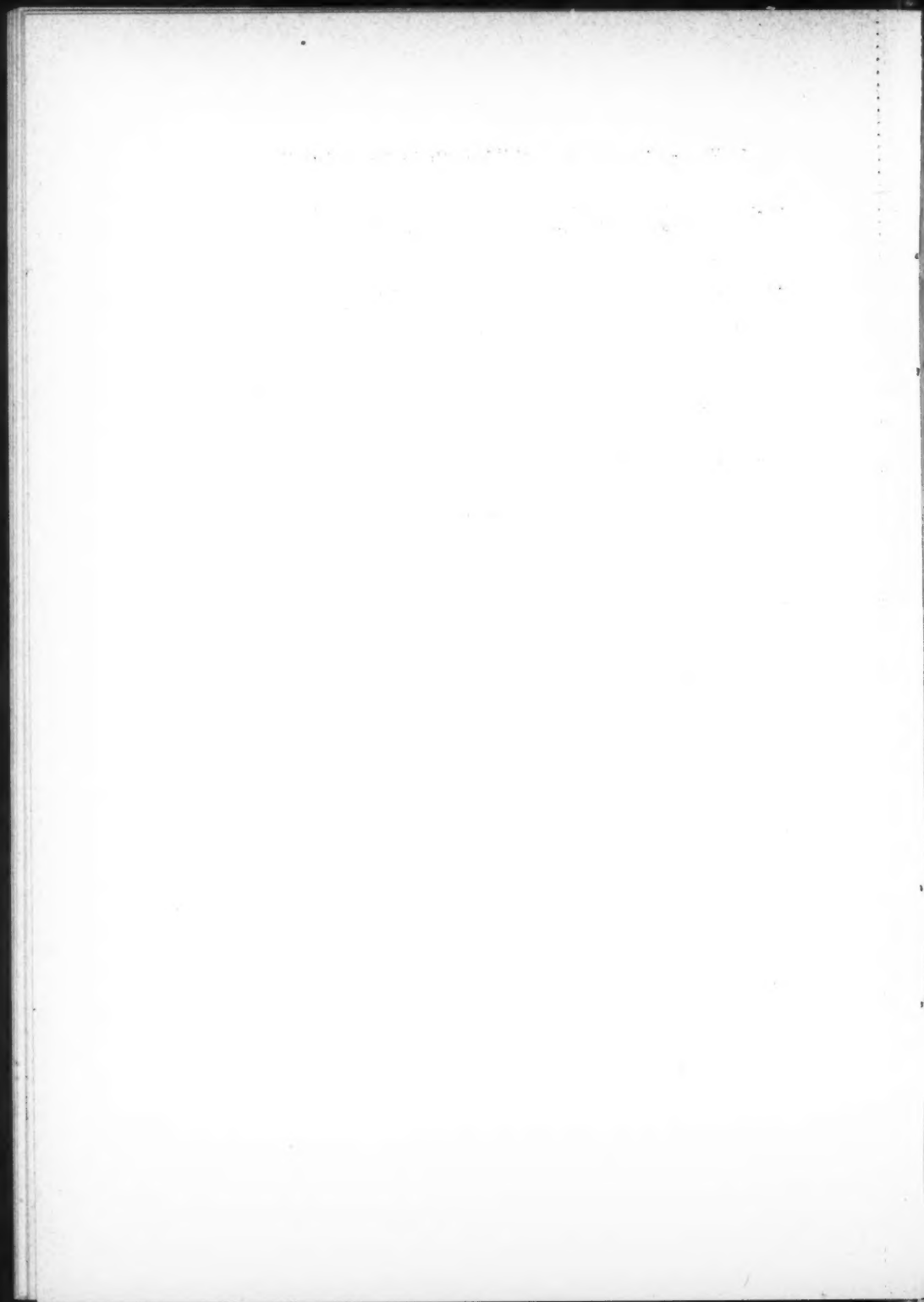
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N. B.—Please make drafts payable to JOHN M. GLENN, Treasurer; remit to H. H. HART, St. Paul, Minn.

I propose the names of the following named persons interested in charities and correction who might, I think, become members of the National Conference if invited:

[illegible]



THE WORKING HOURS OF PUPIL NURSES.*

THE statistical report which it is my privilege to present is a report of the Working Hours of Training Schools in this country and in Canada. I had at first thought of including statistics of the working hours of training schools in Great Britain, but these proved to be so numerous, and the labor involved so considerable, that it seemed best not to undertake it.

Speaking generally of English hospitals, I believe the working day to be a long one. To go on duty at 6:30 or 7:00 a. m. and come off duty at 9:30 p. m. seems to give a very long day, but this is broken into so frequently—for instance, a half-hour in the middle of the morning, an hour for dinner, two or three hours off duty and time given later for afternoon tea—that the working hours are brought down to very nearly the same number as those found in many of our hospitals.

This report is prepared from information received from all of the larger hospitals of this country of which I could obtain knowledge, and from many smaller ones, ranging from Maine to California, from Illinois to Louisiana.

The number of Hospital Training Schools written to was 154; number of answers received, 111; number of American Training Schools, 97; number of Canadian, 14. In the State of New York alone information was received from 25; in Pennsylvania from 18; in Massachusetts from 13. The remaining 41 were scattered throughout the other States. In some instances I was able to obtain information of only one training school in a state, though feeling sure there must be others of the size of these hospitals. In those hospitals where the pupil nurses are sent out to private patients, a great amount of work is frequently thereby thrown upon the nursing staff, and their regular working hours are often greatly increased.

In taking the working day from the hour of rising to retiring, I find it varies from 15½ to 17 hours. The average day

*A paper read before the Society of the Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses, Philadelphia, Feb. 12, 1896, by Adelaide Nutting.

is $16\frac{1}{2}$ hours long, the rising hour 6:00 a. m., retiring hour 10:30 p. m., thus allowing $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours for sleep.

Before going on duty in the wards, each nurse has a certain amount of work to do in taking proper care of her room. It may occupy but twenty minutes, or a half hour or more, as in some schools the entire sweeping, cleaning and care of utensils as well as bed-making, is required of the nurse. The hours actually on duty in the wards vary from 8 to 15 hours. In the greater number of hospitals the nurses are on duty for $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours daily. The following will show the hours of the different schools:

In two hospitals nurses are on duty in the wards for 8 hours daily; in 11 for 9; in 29 for $9\frac{1}{2}$; in 14 for 10; in 31 for $10\frac{1}{2}$; in 3 for 11; in 14 for $11\frac{1}{2}$; in 3 for 12; in 1 for 13; in one for $13\frac{1}{2}$; in one, and I am glad to say but one, 15.

The hours off duty for rest and recreation are varied. In the majority of schools two hours off duty are given daily, but in many instances half this time is taken up on certain days with classes or lectures, and in some schools seniors and juniors each have two classes and two lectures weekly. Arranged in order the following is the summary of the hours off duty.

Daily. In one school the nurses are given three hours off daily. This leaves practically an eight hour day. In two schools $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours off; in 56 two; in four $1\frac{1}{2}$; in 38 one; in one $1\frac{1}{2}$. One gives to seniors $1\frac{1}{2}$, to juniors 1. Another gives one hour daily, two hours once a week; another, one hour four days in a week, two hours one day in a week; another, three hours one day in the week, one hour three days in the week. In the other hospitals no time off is allowed during the week.

Weekly. Half days, however, seem to be very generally considered essential and I find that 98 schools give half days weekly. Four schools give half days each alternate week. One school states that half days are given "sometimes." The remaining seven make no mention of half days, but one school gives one day each alternate week, two schools give one day each month and one school gives a day "occasionally."

Sundays. The hours off duty on Sundays are also variable

and range from one Sunday in the month to one-half of each Sunday, or of each alternate Sunday. Forty-seven schools give a half of Sunday, four schools give five hours on Sunday, 25 schools give four hours on Sunday, 13 schools give three hours on Sunday. Some give three hours every other Sunday; some $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours. One hour for dinner is allowed in 12 schools; one-half hour in 98.

Lectures. In almost all schools each nurse has one lecture weekly, but 12 schools being reported where each class of nurses has two lectures weekly. Whether these come during the time set apart for rest, or in the evening after the nurses are off duty in the wards I have not been informed, but probably the latter.

Classes. Thirty-seven schools have one class weekly for seniors and one for juniors. Twenty-eight schools have two classes weekly for seniors, and one class weekly for juniors.

Twenty-six schools have one class weekly for seniors, two for juniors; 15 schools have two classes weekly for both; four schools have three classes weekly for each. These have one hour off duty daily, but statements are not made as to whether the classes are held in this time. In the majority of schools, I believe, the classes are held during the hour or hours allotted for rest and recreation, but my information on this subject is not sufficiently definite to enable me to make a statement.

Hours for Study. Forty-seven schools require their nurses to give a minimum of one hour daily to study. Fourteen of these schools give but one hour off duty daily, and state that they require their nurses to study at least one hour a day in some instances under a supervisor. One school giving one hour off duty daily states that the nurses are required to give two hours daily to study. This would allow for rest and recreation the remnant of those evenings in the week not occupied with class, lecture, and the additional hour for study for which the day does not provide. Another school expects its nurses to study $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours daily, and another one hour daily and three hours once a week, this latter, of course, occupying the afternoon off duty. In one where the working hour is $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours, with no time off duty during the day, it is stated that one hour for study daily is required. Another

writes frankly: "The nurses' rules require them to study one hour daily, and I give them work enough to make that and more necessary." Here, however, two hours daily off duty are allowed. In one hospital where but one hour is given daily there are daily classes and lectures twice weekly. In another with a 10½ hours a day duty in the wards and but one hour off, the nurses are expected to do from one to two hours studying daily. And in yet another, with a working day of 11½ hours (it would be 12 but for the necessary half hour for dinner) it is stated that the nurses must attend the lectures of the house-staff three times a week. No time daily is considered necessary for recreation, but I quote the last paragraph of the letter as being worthy of attention: "Each nurse is allowed to spend three hours once every week, and a whole afternoon once every fortnight at her convenience. She receives a vacation during the summer of between eight and eleven days."

In regard to classes and lectures after hours. In one hospital where nurses are off duty at 7:30 p. m., seniors and juniors each have two classes each week in the evening from 7:45 to 9:15. Each class has also one lecture, and with a "quiz" upon this another evening is taken up. This means practically four evenings each week donated to mental labor. It would be interesting to know in how many training schools the classes as well as lectures are held at night after the day's work of nine, ten, eleven, or twelve hours in the wards is done.

It would be interesting to know in how many schools the nurses get the full hour or even half hour allowed for meals, or in how many hospitals the exigencies of their work compel them to go without some meals altogether, possibly for several consecutive days, also in how many training schools the nurses get the allotted hour or hours off duty daily—the half days or portions of Sunday regularly.

In regard to special duty and night duty there is little to say, but we find concerning the former that after 20 hours on duty one may be restored by four hours' sleep. Night duty varies from 12 hours, which is adopted by almost 70 per cent. of the schools, to 13 hours and 13½ hours. It may be of one month's duration, two months, three months.

To the working day of $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours, which is that adopted by the greater number of training schools, add the daily hour required for study (which is only a more difficult work) and we have at once a working day of $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours. Add to this one night weekly a class and one night weekly a lecture, and you have two days where your nurses are working at least $12\frac{1}{2}$ hours. A half day during the week is usually given, but that must be always partially devoted to study. Frequently it is unavoidable that this must also come on lecture day. As there is some little irregularity in the length of days, a simpler method is to get at the number of working hours per week. Take as an example the $10\frac{1}{2}$ hour day, allow for a half day and half of Sunday, add the daily hour of study and you have on five days weekly $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours, two days weekly six hours (sometimes) 12 hours, two days weekly class and lecture two hours, daily study one hour, and you have a working week of $73\frac{1}{2}$ hours or more, according to the amount of time given on Sunday. In such instances it would be a 75 to 78 hour week.

There is no other work sufficiently like nursing to serve for purposes of comparison, but to take the first that comes to mind it may be said that 56 to 60 hours a week are generally considered fair working hours for the laboring man. I believe I am right in stating that few industries require their employes to work more than 10 hours daily, and their Sundays are usually free. We cannot actually compare industries with training schools, nor wage-earners with pupils receiving their training in an educational institution, but we can state that the pupil in a training school may work harder to receive her training than a laboring man to support his wife and family, for here we find in one of the most difficult and responsible works a woman can undertake, and her only method of receiving a certain kind of education, it is not a 60 hour week but one varying from that number to 105 hours. In working out the hours per week, we are able to make these statistics: Schools where the working hours are below 60, four. (The exact hours as nearly as can be made out are 59 and there is little class work and no mention of studies.) Working hours from 60 to 70, 54 schools; working hours from 70 to 80, 40 schools; working hours from 80 to 90, 10 schools;

working hours from 90 to 100, one school; working hours over 100, one school.

In preparing this report the chief difficulty lay in getting at the exact number of hours on duty. It seemed to be demanding a great deal of unnecessary information to ask *when* the nurses had breakfast, how long a time was allowed for dinner, and whether the nurses came off duty to supper and returned to their wards, or whether in all instances the supper came after leaving the wards for the night.

Statistics which are not complete and accurate are not statistics, and while it may seem straining at a point to even allude to the amount of time a nurse is expected to give to the care of her room, it is not fair to ignore it entirely. It may be but one-half hour daily, but it is work. It seems small, but in the reviewing of the whole day's work it counts.

In those schools where the very shortest hours are adopted, nurses are working nine hours a day, in a work which taxes the physical strength even of the strong in no small degree—of the moderately strong to the utmost. After nine hours of hard physical labor the nurse comes off duty—to what? To rest? To get out of her uniform and away from the trying atmosphere of the sick-room and into the fresh air? Not at all; but to go to her room, which may perhaps be shared with a stranger, and try to bring the energies of a tired mind, dominated by a tired body, to bear upon whatever problems her theoretical work may present. Having thus taken up her hour or hours for rest and recreation, are her evenings free? We find they are not. For here a class, or a lecture, or possibly two of each, or perhaps to relieve in a ward while a member of another class is at lecture, occupies her, and thus two or three or it may be four evenings in a week are taken up. If this is the picture of a day in a school which is called easy, what must it be in those schools where the working day is not nine but 11, 12 or 13 hours long, and where attendance at lectures or classes is still compulsory.

Now what are training schools? Are they charitable institutions? Is it a condition of employer and employee? When we read in some circulars of nurses' wages, one might think so. They are really, however, educational institutions, and it is time to realize this, and to realize also that

the long hours of duty in the wards may reduce our pupils to a condition of servitude. In many instances it is not for the purpose of giving them more and better training that they are kept on duty long hours, but for the purpose of rendering service, and for economizing in the working force of the institution that these are maintained. These long hours render it nearly impossible for a nurse to profit by her teaching, for which her services are supposed to be given, and therefore with such long hours such teaching is a mere name put forth to attract applicants and is not deserving of mention.

What we should do, and what, if we fail in, others who come after us *will do*, is to open our eyes and our minds to the state of things about us. Let us look into the matter and satisfy ourselves as to the right amount of physical labor required for the necessary training, which can be done without over-fatigue, and without infringing upon other duties. Let us plan out the right amount of mental work and give our pupils time to do it thoroughly, and see to it that they are in a condition physically to do so; give time for a proper amount of healthful exercise and diversion, that spirit and enthusiasm and the "merry heart which doeth good like a medicine" may not be utterly lacking; and finally, let us provide the needful time for sleep. Let us sum it all up and to the number of hours on duty in the wards add the number of hours taken up with class or lecture, and the amount of time expected or necessary to be devoted daily to study, and calculate how much time each day, or even in a week, and under the most favorable circumstances or conditions, can be secured for necessary rest and healthful diversion. The following conclusions would then be inevitable:

First. That the working hours in the wards being but a portion of the day's work, are now in almost all hospitals too long, and that they should be so arranged as to under no circumstances exceed nine hours, and should when possible be limited to eight hours.

Second. That the hours set apart for rest and recreation are now necessarily and frequently infringed upon by class, lecture or study in order that the pupil may perform the required work, and that this should in no case be done, but

these hours should be reserved for the purposes for which they were intended.

Third. That when an increase in the theoretical course of instruction becomes necessary or advisable, it should on adoption be followed by a certain corresponding decrease in the amount of practical work required, and

Fourth. That such long hours of service in wards as have been quoted are, when an established routine, due to the fact that provision is not made for a sufficient number of pupil nurses, and that such economy in hospital administration is unwise and injurious then and thereafter both to nurse and to patient.

Having been requested to prepare a statistical report, I do not feel at liberty to comment at length on the existing order of things, but I cannot refrain from saying that I think the time has come for us to look the matter fairly in the face and see whether or not we are dealing justly by those women whom we propose to send out into the world, not only to care for the sick, but by influence, teaching and example, to represent the value of our training. If strength, health and spirit be lacking, all the teaching and training we can give are no more than pitiful commentaries on our ignorance or on our short-sighted policy in failing to guard all the interests entrusted to our care.

If we are turning out yearly hundreds of nurses who ultimately do mediocre work in a weary and spiritless fashion, who have to take a rest after every third patient, who seem literally "used up and worn out," we cannot hold ourselves blameless.

ADELAIDE NUTTING.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF A WESTERN TOWN.

WHEN this paper was planned it was the expectation that it would incorporate an approximately complete catalogue of the social arrangements in Galesburg, properly classified, and a fairly adequate analysis of the most important ones with all their relations to the social whole. This expectation was soon abandoned. The work grew enormously. The city (and it may be considered, in general, as representative of communities of its size) with sixty years of history, and twenty thousand inhabitants combined into a most confusing network of groups, contains almost limitless possibilities of research.

It is the purpose in the following pages to give, as accurately as possible, the motives and processes in the organization of the original colony, to trace cursorily the development of the original elements to their present state of differentiation and combination, and to give a comprehensive, though not detailed, outline of the structure as it now exists. The work is necessarily incomplete. Many institutions and activities have not been mentioned and the relative importance of those designated has, perhaps, not been made sufficiently manifest. Again, it may be disappointing to some, and particularly to those who are familiar with the community in question, that the facts dealt with are so familiar and so commonplace.

To such criticisms it may only be replied, first, that if the facts are old, still they may, perhaps, be seen in a new light; second, the present paper is designed chiefly to be illustrative of a *method*; and, third, this analysis is only a preliminary survey—a first step toward more detailed analysis of *particular* institutions and activities. Every institution of society is adapted, in a greater or less degree, to its environment, natural and artificial, and cannot be really known until it is seen in its proper relations to that environment. A method, therefore, by which a complex community may be resolved into an orderly and logical arrangement of its elements must be of advantage in the investigation of the special phenomena of that community, whether they be normal or abnormal.

All pretensions to originality of method are disclaimed. This analysis is simply an application to a concrete case of the method set forth by Small and Vincent in "An Introduction to the Study of Society."

I. THE CONCEPTION OF THE COLONY.

In 1834 Rev. George W. Gale, of Whitesboro, N. Y., conceived the idea of founding a college in the Mississippi Valley to "supply an evangelical and able ministry" to "spread the gospel through the world." The idea conceived in his mind developed, was supplemented and modified from time to time by various conditions and circumstances, and the resulting conceptions assumed material forms until to-day there exists the city of Galesburg, Illinois, with its twenty thousand inhabitants, its wealth, its institutions, and its activities.

Mr. Gale's plan was, in brief, as follows: A subscription was to be opened for the purpose of raising \$40,000, with which to undertake the enterprise. A township of land was to be purchased at government price (\$1.25 per acre) and appraised at \$5.00 per acre. Thus, for every \$1.25 paid to the government by the subscribers, \$3.75 went to the endowment of the college. The title to all lands not deeded to original settlers was to be vested in a Board of Trustees, elected by the subscribers. Mill seats in the tract were to be at the disposal of the Board for the benefit of the college fund. Three sections of the land were to be reserved for college and village sites, the village was to be laid out into lots and the lots appraised in a similar manner to the farm lands. The money accruing from the sale of village lots was to endow a female seminary and an academy.

With this plan Mr. Gale sought the coöperation of personal friends and secured thirty-four subscribers to the amount of \$21,000. These met at Rome, N. Y., May 6, 1835, and elected a prudential committee which, in turn, appointed a committee of one to secure *families*, and an exploring committee to find a *location*. The exploring committee received instructions concerning the considerations to be regarded in the choice of a site. These were:

1. Health. This was to be a *sine qua non*. To be noticed especially were: (1) Quality of water in wells and springs;

(2) the streams, whether rapid, slow or sluggish, whether they rise in swamps or pass through them, or from springs; (3) the vicinity of marshes; (4) the face of the country, whether level or rolling.

2. Quality of soil, depth, variety, etc. The slope of the country, towards what points, and the degree of the slope.

3. Supply of water, timber and fuel, etc.

4. Facilities of intercourse; roads and canals, where now made or probably to be made at no distant time; navigable streams.

5. Hydraulic power. It would be desirable to have power of this description for all the purposes of mills, machinery, etc., of all sorts, and near the center of the village if not unfavorable to health. If unfavorable, it had better be a few miles distant, and might even be dispensed with, if other things be right, provided there be a good supply of coal for the purpose of steam power.

6. If a place on some great thoroughfare, as a canal or navigable water, cannot be obtained, it will be better to get into the country from fifteen to twenty-five miles from such a place, provided the country around be good farming country. It should, however, be on some important road, or where it is probable such a road will be built.

7. The present state of population and prospects of increase.

When a site had been selected and purchased, the subscribers again met in New York and assumed entire ownership of the land. A committee was appointed to see about the improvement of the land, a name for the college and village, and what could be done to guard morals. It was resolved that the village be laid out into lots and these thrown on the market; that lots be reserved for an academy, a ladies' seminary, a meeting house, a common school, and other benevolent objects; that arrangements be made for cultivating and fencing the college land and for procuring materials for the college edifice; that provision be made for a steam saw mill, either from the public fund or by private enterprise, preference being given to the latter; that a house be built for boarding and entertainment; and that woodland be furnished to each purchaser, if he required it, equal to one-tenth of his purchase.

So far, our village community exists only in the minds of its originators. At this point some observations may be made. First, be it observed, the society had a psychical origin. Few communities, perhaps, are so completely organized before they take material shape; but whether they are carefully planned beforehand, or develop, as it were, unconsciously and by chance, every social institution or activity is preceded by a desire, a motive, a thought, on the part of one or more individuals. Every social arrangement is a transformed thought. However material these arrangements may be, their study ultimately resolves itself into a psychological study. In the second place our view of the society in its pre-natal state enables us to observe separately the two primary elements of every society, *land* and *population*. These two elements combine and a third essential element, *wealth*, is produced. It may be noticed here that our society is not a primitive society, but simply an off-shoot from an older and well-developed society, bringing with it many of the accumulated resources of past experience, including some wealth with which the land is purchased. Thirdly, we may already perceive the necessity for coöperation among the members of the colony, and the dependence of the people upon the land. We will observe as we proceed how this coöperation perfects itself and how the land, the population and wealth act and react upon one another. We may now begin to trace the actual development of the community.

II. THE LAND.

After a three months' search through the Mississippi Valley the exploring committee found a location in the Military Tract in Illinois which "combined more desirable objects than they had heretofore expected to find." This "Mesopotamia of the West," as they termed it, consisted of beautiful rolling prairie, situated on the watershed between the Mississippi and Illinois rivers, with numerous springs and streams which afforded an abundance of water and excellent drainage. Timber land was in abundance. About three miles north of the proposed village site was a large tract of woodland, containing oak, black walnut, and other varieties of trees, which supplied building material and fuel. This grove afforded

shelter to the settlers during the first hard winter. The geological formation of the region proved of great importance. The underlying sub-carboniferous strata afforded rich veins of coal, brick-clay, and some building stone. As will be seen hereafter, the relative position and thickness of the rock strata was of great significance with reference to the permanent water supply and to the drainage of the future town. To the east, Court Creek threaded its way among the hills toward Spoon River. Its valley was rich in a peculiar shaly clay which has come to be the material for one of Galesburg's chief industries—the manufacture of rock-like paving brick. The soil was exceedingly fertile. Eight years before the founding of Galesburg the whole of Knox County was virgin soil and now the only settlers skirted the edges of the timber. These settlers informed strangers that “the county was pretty well settled; the best lands were all occupied, and nothing remained to be taken up but the prairie land that was so far from timber as to be useless except for range for cattle and horses.” This “useless” land has become one of the richest farming regions of the West.

It was found impossible to secure a full township, as the original plan provided, and only about half a township, or 10,746 acres, was bought, besides a quarter section of timber land and two improved farms on the edge of the timber. With Galesburg as a center, a radius of fifty miles would include 120 miles of the Mississippi, 70 miles of the Illinois, and 30 miles of Rock River, and would embrace, besides other towns, fifteen county seats.

III. THE POPULATION.

1. *Its motives.* While land of a suitable character was being provided, the committee to secure families was searching for a population to occupy the land and to develop it so as best to meet the necessities and purposes of the society as planned. The great purpose, it might be said the only conscious purpose, of Mr. Gale in founding the colony was to establish a college for the education of young men and women for the Christian ministry. He urged that efficient ministers could only be produced “by the slow process of education,” and was confident that “it is perfectly in the power of a few

families of moderate property to rear up such institutions, at this time, in the valley of the Mississippi, on a permanent basis, with a great part of the endowment required and on a liberal and extensive scale, with great advantage to themselves." Therefore, settlers were sought who would make this their controlling purpose. It was this zeal for education and religion that especially characterized the colony and that has strongly influenced the life of the town until the present time.

But in the instructions to the committee respecting the considerations to be regarded in the selection of a site, we find other desires which must be met to make the colony a success. There must be (1) good water, good drainage, or conditions favoring health; (2) rich soil, abundant fuel, or conditions favoring the production of wealth; (3) good roads, canals, etc., or conditions favoring intercourse among themselves and with the outside world.

In the minutes of an early meeting of the subscribers we find provision made to guard morals; lots reserved for a meeting house, for college buildings, for a common school; a saw-mill contemplated; and a house for boarding and entertainment planned.

In these plans we find measures taken to satisfy the desires for (1) health, (2) wealth, (3) sociability, (4) knowledge, (5) religion and morals. To these may be added (6) the desire for beauty; for in a description of the first log cabins, chinked with mud, with no glass windows, and furnished with boxes, barrels and logs, it is said: "It was passing strange how quickly, under the good taste and deft fingers of the ladies of the colony, these cabins took on a cozy air and an appearance of beauty and refinement." It is believed that in these six desires may be found the motives which led to all the arrangements and activities of the community. Paradoxical as it may seem, even the delight in the hideous, which seems to control some men, would be classed under (6), the aesthetic sense being in an abnormal condition. The acts of a drunkard may be traced primarily to his desire for sociability, or, perhaps, for health. The desire for wealth may lead to miserliness or to philanthropy.

Now the population which established Galesburg was not

an exception with reference to the possession of these motive desires. But no community is likely to possess them all in equal proportions, and it is the *relative* power of each of the desires in a given community which determines the character of its social arrangements and of its activities. A certain amount of health and of wealth is essential to individual human life and hence to the existence of a society. The desires for these two things may therefore be said to be fundamental to all the other desires. Or these may be reduced still further and we may say that as all life depends upon food, all human activity may be traced ultimately to the desire to obtain food. No activity, whether in the pursuit of knowledge, or religion, or art, would be possible without a certain amount of wealth. Furthermore, the *forms* of knowledge, of religion, of art, etc., depend upon the nature of the food supply, and upon the ease with which it is obtained. All of which tends to show how much all phases of social activity depend upon habitat, or upon *land*. Health, also, is dependent upon food-conditions, and temperament upon health, and forms of activity upon temperament. Every one knows how a slight attack of dyspepsia will affect an individual's views of religion, of aesthetics and of sociability. Therefore, in a broad and fundamental sense, we may say that all social activities depend upon the first two desires named in our classification.

But in the analysis of the motives which led to the formation of the society of Galesburg, we shall assume the existence of a sufficient desire for health and wealth, at the outset, to make possible life and various forms of activity. This being given, it remains to observe the existence and relative importance of the six above-mentioned desires, as motive forces in the subsequent social arrangements and activities. The ruling motives among the first colonists were the desires for knowledge and righteousness. The desires for health and wealth led to certain precautions in the selection of a site and to the establishment of arrangements to protect health and to provide for support. No doubt some had in mind the possibilities of accumulating wealth, yet all stood ready for any sacrifice to establish religious and educational institutions. Health and wealth were made subservient to higher motives. Activities to satisfy the aesthetic sense were a mere incident.

The desire for sociability found expression chiefly through the religious and educational arrangements of the community.

The predominating desires of the early settlers thus led to the establishment of institutions, customs, and standards which have reacted upon all later comers, influencing their desires and activities, and molding the character of the community. The town is known throughout the State as the "College City," and the high financial standing of Galesburg and of Knox County may be traced directly to the consciences of those early colonists. The influence of the various desires has become more equalized as time has passed. A few years after the founding, a new element of population came, whose avowed motive was the desire for wealth. At certain periods this has seemed to be the ruling desire of the community, as during the first and second railroad booms, when mercantile interests arose and speculation in real estate was brisk. At other times, the desire for sociability has been marked, even leading to charges of "worldliness" from the more conservative ones who remembered the "better days." But in spite of innovations and a greater equalization of motive forces, Galesburg has, in the past, been a hotbed of reform movements, most of which have centered about the "Old First Church," and is to-day distinguished by an air of culture and refinement seldom found in towns of its size.

2. *Unifying and Segregating Influences.* We have thus far considered the population solely from the standpoint of the individual. The motives which led to associated activities were lodged in the brains of individuals. But society is made possible only by the coöperation of larger or smaller groups. It is this group formation that we will now notice. For reasons which will appear later, the family, and not the individual, is taken as the unit of society. The thirty families which settled in Galesburg in 1836 were remarkable for their unity. The testimony of all is that "the people were one." They were of one nationality, possessed of Puritan blood and spirit. Though many were strangers before coming, they were "so homogeneous in principles and aims that they inspired mutual confidence and fraternal attachment from the first acquaintance." Nearly every person was a professing Christian. The idea of a Christian college was the

center around which all rallied. An intense anti-slavery sentiment made the town a famous station of the Underground Railroad. A unanimity of feeling against intemperance led to the insertion of a prohibitory clause in every deed of land given in the colony. There were no classes of society, no "artificial rules of etiquette;" "no particular style of living was requisite for admission to the best society." There was the greatest freedom and cordiality of feelings and habits. The common experiences of pioneer life, the hardships and privations through which they passed, bound them together in sympathy and helpfulness. Some of these influences reached beyond the limits of the community and kept it in organic connection with the parent stock in the East, whence it continued to draw new supplies of life and strength.

It is difficult at this distance to define the segregating influences. It has been asserted that there were none. Of the sixty-three persons who brought letters to the church organized at the settlement, thirty-five came from Presbyterian churches, twenty-five from Congregational, two from Methodist, and one from a Baptist church. The Presbyterians represented Central New York, the Congregationalists, Vermont. While there was perfect harmony in the church as an organization, these groups represented different shades of opinion on minor matters which gradually drew them apart until in 1845 a "compromise" was necessitated, and in 1851 a separation took place. There were also the beginnings of neighborhood groups; friendships were formed which became nuclei for many minor aggregations. Even some slight animosities are discoverable, though almost smothered in the atmosphere of the place.

IV. THE UNION OF LAND AND POPULATION.

Within a few months after the purchase of the land, the village had been platted, and social life began with a population of about 170 individuals, or 30 families. Besides the aggregation of the population into large and small groups by various natural affinities and accidents, there took place certain functional arrangements of individuals and groups with the land. The chief of these were: A church, a school, temperance and anti-slavery societies, singing schools and spelling

bees; farms, a saw-mill and a store; a physician with his apparatus. Most of the activities of the village were performed in a general way by any and all of its members, and not by special groups. Food was raised, and shoes and clothing were made, at home. If a house were built the neighbors united in the work. If a fire occurred, all came to the rescue. But among those who settled as farmers were a few who, in the East, had been mechanics, carpenters, smiths, shoemakers. These naturally began to assume for the whole community the service for which they were trained. When the meeting house was built all the able-bodied men took a hand, but each did that part for which he was best adapted. A blacksmith's shop was started in the saw-mill, and a shoemaker did a thriving business. Barter was the chief mode of exchange. Merchandise was obtained, in exchange for farm produce, from Peoria and Chicago. For a year there was no postoffice and mail was brought from Knoxville, five miles to the south-east. The service of transportation was performed by any one who had team and wagon.

In short, the fact to be observed is that all the elements and activities which characterize the most fully developed society were present in at least rudimentary forms, but that the activities were only beginning to be specialized into the hands of appropriate groups. The subsequent history of the town is that of the growth, development, and specialization of these groups and activities. In tracing this development we will begin with

V. THE FAMILY.

A few years ago a writer described Galesburg as "emphatically a city of homes," and attributed to this fact the absence of lawlessness which then characterized the place. And it seems to be the current opinion that what vice and immorality there is found in Galesburg to-day is due in large measure to the floating population—the population without homes. The truth of this belief is supported by a comparison of Galesburg's pioneer life with that of many frontier towns whose populations boast no women and hence no families. The family is peculiarly the fundamental group in the social structure. It was a significant fact that one of the two com-

mittees appointed by the founders was to secure—not men, nor individuals—but *families*.

The vital connection of the infant society with the outside world was largely through the medium of the family. The ties of relationship which bound the thirty families of the colony to the East, have grown into an inextricable network which absolutely forbids the severance of Galesburg from the interests and sympathy of the world at large. The family connects generations of the social body as well as contemporary portions. Hereditary traits, ideas and beliefs are passed on from parent to child. Few voters of the younger generation have a better reason for their political faith than that they were born into it. Children of Baptist or Episcopalian parents rarely become Methodists or Presbyterians. The importance of the family in giving definiteness, closeness and permanency to the relations between land and population was recognized when some of the subscribers, who were unable to move West, were induced to yield their claims in favor of families who would occupy and improve the land.

The early family life was crude and much more independent of the rest of society than at present. Each man with his neighbors' help chopped and hauled the logs with which to build his cabin. In the fall of 1836 there were in the edge of the Grove, "a dozen or two log cabins, some built without a nail or a pane of glass; with the spaces between the logs chinked with mud; with outside chimneys made of clay and sticks; with boxes, barrels and short logs for chairs, a large box for the table, and a one-post bedstead for an honored guest." Curtains divided the one room into sleeping apartments. "The cabins were so crowded that there was no room to quarrel if any one had been so disposed." "The frying-pan performed all the offices for which iron was necessary, and the horse pail did the rest." Each man was his own mechanic, some were their own cobblers, and the wives were the tailors and dress-makers. The watchful mother cared for the health of the family as physician, nurse and sanitary policeman. A family in "average circumstances" is described as having "enough money to pay taxes and postage." Servants were rare and were on equal terms with the rest of the family. Aesthetic requirements were met by sticking four balls of clay

upon the corners of the chimney, and in other equally primitive ways. Books and papers (rare articles) passed from house to house as a primitive circulating library. The people were pious if they were nothing else, and yet one good old matriarch bitterly complained that she had "no room to pray."

Such a family was a miniature society in itself. A complete economic system was in operation within its limits. Intellectual, aesthetic, moral, and religious training was chiefly in its hands. There were learned the first lessons in authority, obedience, and altruism, three essential elements in every stable society. It is said of one who was born into one of these families, and whose reputation as a reformer and an educator is national, "She thus grew up in an atmosphere of education, of hatred to slavery and the liquor traffic, of intense religious convictions, of missionary zeal, and of reformatory agitation."

The steps in the development of the family life cannot here be traced. We can only suggest the modern household in contrast to the pioneer family. The modern family retains, in some degree, all of the functions of the early family. But as family learned to coöperate with family, these functions have been gradually shifted upon special social groups, which perform for the whole community what each family originally had to perform for itself. But whether the family, within its small circle, performs these functions in a greater or less degree, its importance and responsibility in the more perfect service of the specialized groups have rather increased than diminished. In the family they had their birth, for the family they act, from the family go forth individuals to enter into their special activities. The efficiency of these groups depends upon the coöperation of the family. The family is *par excellence* the school in which individuals are made social or unsocial.

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[TO BE CONTINUED.]

RURAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS IN GERMANY.

AS building associations have obtained such a firm hold in the cities of the United States, it may not be uninteresting to those who give attention to the origin, development and effects of mutual-benefit associations if I furnish the following account of the agrarian and kindred associations for mutual benefit which exist in Germany.

Mr. W. M. Kuhlow has treated the entire subject as follows: Frederick William Raiffeisen, commonly known by the name of "Father" Raiffeisen, was, toward the end of 1849 and the beginning of 1850, mayor of Flammersfeld (a Rhine province district). Later on, he was mayor of Heddersdorf (Neuwied). At Flammersfeld, he had some thirteen country parishes and a population of 5,000 souls to attend to. Among these many of the well-to-do landed proprietors were entirely in the hands of the local money lenders who ruled the community. With much difficulty, Raiffeisen succeeded in getting all, or nearly all, the members of the parish of Flammersfeld to join together and form, as it were, in common, an unlimited-liability society, and thus the first rural company for lending money out on interest (*Darlehns-kassen-Verein*) was founded. The system worked so well that, at the end of ten years, all the small peasants who had hitherto been a booty for the money lenders, became free men. Then it was that a commission was sent from Berlin to study the system of forming coöperative associations for lending money.

The strength of the Raiffeisen associations consists in unlimited liability. No member can escape, for the association is not responsible for any of its members, but merely for the sums of money deposited. Their safety is so trusted that bankers have declared themselves ready to grant the associations credit, merely on the ground of their unlimited responsibility and without asking for any other guaranty.

Let us take an association consisting of some fifty-eight members. The community being in prosperous circumstances each member can safely be calculated to be worth 10,000 marks (\$2,400). Thus the society can be said to dispose of a capital of 580,000 marks (\$140,000). As the different direc-

tors of the associations, by their regulations, are not allowed to speculate in any way, and, moreover, are only empowered to lend money to the different members, a complete security is offered.

Servants residing in places where there are no Raiffeisen *Vereine* frequently place their savings, etc., in the nearest associations; and, with a view to enable children to do the same (children as a rule, possessing a little pocket money) *Pfennigsparkassen* have been instituted, where 10 pfennigs (2½ cents) are accepted on deposit from children.

Those persons who desire to obtain a loan are obliged to satisfy the association on the following four points: (1) He, or they, as the case may be, must notify at an early date his application either to the director or to the accountant of the association; (2) he must explain for what purpose he requires the money; (3) how much he can pay back yearly; (4) somebody, with whom he is on friendly terms, must "go security" for him.

As regards the third point, it is a standing rule of the association only to lend out money when there is a certainty that part will be paid back yearly. However, respites are granted, and the return of payments may be made during the year in the smallest sums. At present, all the different associations have accepted the statute, viz., that in each case where the accountant or one of the directors divulges anything with reference to a credit, which has been promised and vouched for, a fine of 30 marks (\$7.50) is imposed on him.

As those who have become sureties for their friends are entirely responsible, it is their interest to be vigilant and see that the loan obtained is used for the purpose given out. Should this not take place, the surety generally notifies the fact to the association; in this way, he shields himself. In cases where both the borrower and he who answers for him meet with heavy losses brought about by adverse circumstances, and through no fault of their own, the association is empowered to cover the deficit resulting from the reserve fund. This, however, is most rare.

The various Raiffeisen societies are in the habit of laying in a stock of the following articles of consumption: Seeds of different kinds, artificial manures, fodder, fuel and flour.

As a rule, the associations commence to obtain considerable cash surpluses from the second, or, in the worst cases, the third year of their establishment. The cash surplus acquired in the first year is expended in connection with the charges of management, in the general arrangements, in the purchase of books, etc. All the members of the committee, according to the regulations, must take their share of the duties imposed in an honorary capacity. It is only the accountant who can accept fees.

Most of the associations existing at present pay $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest for loans required by them, but exact 4 per cent. interest from those borrowing from them. When the borrower obtains his money he pays one-half of one per cent., which goes into the money chest and is called "provision."

The total gains are divided each year into three parts. One part is laid aside for an indivisible *Stiftungsfond*, a second for the reserve fund, and a third part should, according to regulations, be divided as dividends among the members. It can be declared, though, in a general meeting, that for a period of ten years no dividends shall be divided among the members, and this measure can be renewed every ten years.

The reserve fund covers all losses, and, generally, consists of 15,000 marks (\$3,500). The indivisible *Stiftungsfond* is kept up according to the yearly money requirements.

From the above, it will be seen that the associations gain on every 100 a half per cent.

Almost at the same period that the Raiffeisen *Vereine* were instituted, another system called *Schulze-Delitzsch* came into life, without either one or the other knowing anything of their mutual existence. The *Schulze-Delitzsch* associations are of great use to those carrying on trade in towns and market places, for they afford the means of acquiring raw materials and money. These credit associations, though, only grant a short respite to the borrowers, but that is considered reasonable, as the trader barter his money much more frequently than the peasant; the latter can only shift his money once a year, after the harvest, and, therefore, requires a longer time for repaying his loan.

It may be said that these credit associations are somewhat speculative institutions, and do not offer the same security as

the Raiffeisen *Vereine*, whereas the latter only extend themselves to small districts. The *Schulze-Delitzsch* can operate to an unlimited extent, and the yearly gains are not divided equally among the members, but in a ratio corresponding to the importance of the members' share of business. Occasionally this has resulted in overspeculation, and, lately, several associations established at Lohr, Dusseldorf and Hassfurt have had to be wound up from the above cause.

As the principal object of the Raiffeisen system is to combat the usurer and drive him out of the rural districts, it has always been in the interest of the different associations to help each other. This is frequently done by one society, which has a surplus of money, helping another one to cover its deficit. As a rule, every two years the affairs of an association are thoroughly examined and looked into by a professional examiner of accounts, who is not a member of the association. When several associations join on to each other, the costs entailed by employing these professional examiners of accounts are shared.

There are few difficulties in forming a Raiffeisen association. In a district where there are but three honest, competent and willing men, the one who will act as accountant, the second as director, the third as president of the superintending council, a society can be formed. The Bavarian *Landesverband* (formed by the coöperation of agricultural associations) on such an occasion supplies the necessary forms of their organization free of cost.

It is generally found to be advisable that the clergyman or schoolmaster of the district should undertake the duties of accounting, but shopkeepers, in general, likewise make good accountants. The accounts have to be gone through four times a year, but they present no particular difficulties, and either a clergyman or schoolmaster is well qualified for the work. It is calculated, in the smaller associations, that the accountant can dispose of his work during ten months in the year by merely giving up a quarter of an hour per day to it. In the months of December and January, though, more time would have to be found by the accountant.

Thus, the way to form an association is to begin by finding three willing and competent men as described above. This

having been done the elections take place—that is to say, five persons are chosen for the directory, and nine to act as superintendents of the council. Afterwards a general meeting is held. The protocol supplied is discussed and settled, and the formation of the society is announced to the provincial court of justice. The association is then in working order, and, little by little, as the case may be, extends itself.

In 1893, there were 1,038 credit societies on the *Schulze* system (in Bavaria); the amount of their credit was calculated at 1,579,000,000 marks (\$393,000,000). Among this number, it was reckoned that there were, perhaps, some 157,183 independent farmers who took part in the credit to the amount of 300,000,000 marks (\$75,000,000).

As regards the Raiffeisen associations (in Bavaria), during the year 1893, it is roughly stated in a report from Neuwied that there were 713 *Vereine*, with 62,000 members. Their credit business was calculated to amount to 25,000,000 marks (\$6,000,000).

There exist in Wurtemberg a great many banking institutions which are established on the Raiffeisen system, and there is no doubt the agricultural population has benefited to a considerable extent from them. Before their institution, the rural classes, as in Bavaria, suffered severely from the extortions of usurers. These money-lenders (and there were numbers of them) were invariably ready to assist people with loans, but always at a high rate of interest, for the lender had to calculate a premium for a possible loss, in the event of his debtor not being able to repay him. Moreover, as the agricultural profits were small, debtors often found it impossible to obtain the means of continuing to pay their debts and the high rates of interest, and thus many people were ruined. All this, one way or the other, led to the establishment of the *Genossenschafts-Vereine* (mutual benefit unions), for it was found that in one and the same parish there were generally some persons who had money to spare and others who required it. Among the latter class, many were known to be respectable, honest, and orderly people, who, provided the terms imposed upon them were not too heavy, would certainly pay their debts.

It should be remembered that, in Wurtemberg, there are

many small landed proprietors, who, in ordinary times, find their means of subsistence without any help, as they are both industrious and thrifty, and make as much out of their little estates as is possible. They can, moreover, compete with the larger landed proprietors; for while they themselves are generally assisted by their own relatives, the owners of larger concerns have to employ and pay for the labor of work people. Still, in times of sickness and misfortune, these small proprietors get into trouble, and, as they seldom possess ready money, they have to endeavor to borrow it.

It was often found that at a particular moment one man could spare money, whereas another, at that time, was in want of it; but very likely the latter, a short time afterwards, would find himself in a situation to be able not only to pay back his debt but have money over, whereas the former would perhaps then be in want of a loan for a certain period. From this, it will be seen that members of the same *Genossenschaft* might, at one time, be creditors, and, at another, debtors. As all the members are responsible for the association, it follows that they watch each other pretty keenly and are interested in preventing the reception of those who are not trustworthy; and it is to be presumed that in one and the same parish the inhabitants will know each other pretty well. Moreover, it has now become a principle that only persons of the same *Gemeinde* (parish) will be admitted as members in a *Genossenschaft*.

As the *Genossenschafts-Kassen* require no profits and pay no dividends, and, as in Bavaria, the only salaried member is the cashier, the different members of the board acting in a purely honorary capacity, it results that they are in a position to offer a fair interest to their creditors, and exact a modest rate of interest from debtors.

H. F. MERRITT, Consul.

(From Consular Reports for January, 1896.)

FARM AND GARDEN WORK FOR GIRLS.*

It has been asked why we make farm work and gardening the important features of our Industrial School. The reasons are these.

We consider it one of the surest aids to moral and physical development. Whatever is brought to bear upon the mind of a boy or girl to waken a new interest, to enlarge their resources and to open the heart to receive something more noble and pure is the first step in the right direction, that is toward making them love what they once hated, and hate what they once loved.

To battle with evil, it is better that the attack should be indirect, not in purpose but in management, using strategy, as it were; supplanting the evil in their minds with something higher and purer.

If a girl has never known the country, never has seen the growing life or inhaled any of the fragrance of blooming nature or listened to the sweet songs of birds; if she has always lived among brick walls, and those walls sheltering dirt and vice, is it a wonder her mind is dwarfed, and that vice crept in, taking absolute possession of her, soul and body? And is it wholly *her* fault we find her in this lamentable condition?

Then the first advantage of farm life is that it opens the minds and hearts to receive what before has been a stranger to them. The new wholesome life begins to appeal to their better nature. They develop new sight for things beautiful, and the old associations are replaced with elevating ones. That tenderness is cultivated is shown in the interest they take in birds. It is no uncommon thing for the girls to watch some bird and feed her, while she is laying her eggs and hatching her young; and if by chance an unfortunate one falls from the nest, some girl flies to the rescue, manifesting a tenderness she has never before expressed.

Physically, outdoor exercise gained on the farm is a rest from the nervous strain of school routine and gives them the muscular strength which is a needed preparation before beginning the course in the kitchen. Our girls come to us with pale faces and constitutions that need building up, and we find that the farm work is just the best tonic that can be prescribed. It is not our purpose to make farmers of the girls, but to make farming and gardening a temporary employment, while the school is for general improvement morally and physically.

Although we know that many hands make light work and that much expense of men's hire is saved by the girls' labor, yet the matter of economy to the commonwealth does not enter into the plan. We believe that the management of the school should be strictly economical, and that waste should not be tolerated, yet it is not our endeavor to earn money for the purpose of reimbursing the state; for we are convinced that an Industrial School should no more be required to do this

*Read at the New Haven Conference of Charities and Correction by Mrs. L. L. Brackett, Superintendent of the State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster, Mass.

for the education of state wards than should our public schools be expected to refund public money. We could not do our best work for the reformation of these girls were we to work with this end in view. When a boy or girl is transplanted into society a respectable self-supporting citizen, the state is reimbursed ten fold. If all the energies of the school combine to give a girl her industrial training and school education, fitting her to be placed in a family in as short a time as possible, there is no time for earning money; but if afterwards the girl supports herself, it is saving expense, and in this instance a penny saved is even better than one earned.

In managing the farm work of the girls we have found it desirable that there should be a woman to supervise it. She must be as wisely selected as are many of our teachers and paid the same salary; a woman of education and refinement, for her influence is constant and must be such that it will elevate the farm work to the same dignity as the other occupations in the school. She must be a woman of courage and good cheer; she must believe in the work of saving girls, and love it, for love lightens labor. Thus will she brighten their lives by the tasks which she shares.

The farm work is planned, as a rule, so that it may not interfere with the hours for school. In the morning after their work has been finished (for each girl has the care of her own room), "the farmer," as Miss Morse calls herself, starts out for her helpers. She usually takes from ten to fifteen girls, in turn from each cottage. When she appears nearly all put up their hands to ask if they may be of the chosen.

They don their broad brimmed hats, under which are cheerful faces, and are soon on the way to the farm. The change from the sewing-room to the fresh morning breeze gives them a general good time which goes far to make their lives brighter and better. The farmer assigns each girl her task. If it is weeding, each has a row for which she is responsible. There is a certain discipline required, yet there is less restraint than in the house; they work for a while, and then comes the time to rest, working and resting alternately so that no girl shall be over-taxed. They rake hay and leaves, transplant vegetables, and the girls gather the latter in large quantities and take them every morning to the family houses for their dinner. When the fruit has ripened, the girls are delighted to lend a hand in harvesting, and later, in the husking of the corn. At the time of resting, they refresh themselves with such an amount of fruit that a stranger might be alarmed for their safety; but they accustom their digestion to raw turnips, carrots, etc., in such a manner that there need be no anxiety for them.

During the rest, Miss Morse takes her opportunity to feed their minds with something useful and to impart to them some general information, often drawing some lesson from the objects about them. It will be seen, then, how important it is that the farming teacher should be well qualified to give instructions orally and in the spirit of love, which alone has the power to reach the good that is latent in her pupils. The example of such a woman is invaluable, for she gives an

impetus to their ambition and raises the standard of the dignity of labor.

The question might arise, how is the teacher of farming to be employed on rainy days? There are potatoes to cut for planting, vegetables to assort, corn to husk, and if there is no work of this kind, she always makes herself useful in numerous ways. She works on the library books, upholsters old furniture, with girls to assist. In fact, where there are so many things to be done, there need be no idle hands.

It has been said that we must do away with all sham and sentimentality and deal with things as they are and not as they ought to be. Hence in disciplining and teaching those whose minds have never developed any ambition higher than to depend upon others for their support, they must have a tremendous shaking up, so to speak, to make them alive to the importance of being independent and equal to the task of earning their own living.

This suggests a very interesting case of a pretty young girl who was committed to our care. Her hands were as soft and white as a baby's, of which she was very proud, and she proposed to keep them so. Her mother thought she was not strong enough to work, therefore she had been allowed to grow up in idleness, which was one great cause of her being wayward. She was disgusted at the thought of digging in the dirt, for she was afraid that the dirt would get under her nails and that she should brown her delicate hands. No exception, however, was made in her case, only that more care was necessary that she should not overwork. This, together with the industrial training, was successful in changing a life of indolence and independence to one of usefulness. She is now supporting herself in a family, attending high school, is faithful and takes pride in her work. The wholesome training has taught her that if her hands are brown they are good hands, and that it is the character and not the hands that should be kept spotless.

This is one of many cases which might be mentioned as showing the good results of the outdoor work. Another good result is this: After a girl learns to like farm life and to enjoy the country she is happy if placed in such a farmer's family as those where we find some of our best homes.

The visiting physician of the School, Dr. O'Callaghan, writes of this method: "I am fully in sympathy with the movement, and have seen excellent results from the venture. Indeed I have been longing for the past few weeks for the return of the supervisor in order that the girls, who had been weakened by the epidemic of influenza, may have a chance to spend hours in the open air where they may receive the best of all restoratives—ozone and sunlight.

In our normal condition our girls have almost a superabundance of health and animal spirits, and there is need of more outdoor exercise than can be given in the few hours of recreation—so that the activity required in the light work of the farm seems to fill a long felt want."

MRS. L. L. BRACKETT.

CONFERENCE NOTES.

Training Schools for Nurses.—Now that training schools for nurses may be counted by the hundred literally, as there are at least two hundred in the United States, the question of the health of the women who are graduated from them is one that must interest the whole country. In the early days a great amount of manual labor, even of the roughest sort, was expected of pupil nurses, but there has been an improvement in that respect. Still it has been noticeable that many of the young women coming out from the schools are not physically fit to take up their arduous profession. Why they are not may be seen in a paper in this number written by Miss Adelaide Nutting of the Johns Hopkins Hospital. Now that the superintendents are trying to inaugurate a reform in this matter boards of management, trustees of hospitals and physicians should aid them. If it be true that the term of active work of a trained nurse is but ten years, something should be done to lengthen such valuable lives and priceless service. The careful figures of Miss Nutting are convincing.

New Jersey State Charities Aid Association.—The tenth annual report of this Association has just appeared, an excellent document. What a power for good such a society possesses! Here are banded together not only the twenty-seven men and women who make up the board of managers, but the six or eight men who report for the county branches. Yet with all these earnest and active workers the State of New Jersey is far behind the ideal State. The jails, though improved, are still places of idleness and schools of crime, (though in Mercer county the establishment of a workhouse has made the jail what it should be, a place of detention.) The reformatory at Rahway has been begun. The efficient secretary, Emily E. Williamson, says that a great need is a State school for the neglected and dependent children now in almshouses, as the State is at present "educating several hundred children each year to become professional paupers. The outcome of this system of education is filling our jails, reformatories, penitentiaries and State prisons." It is distressing to know that 491 children are in the almshouses, too many for any State school. Would it not be a pity for New Jersey to establish such a large institution for children? If there were proper classification and the placing out system, with proper inspection, were adopted, there would probably be no need for a school of such size, especially if the blind were taken out and the feeble-minded were put into a school of their own, as they ought to be. Besides the epileptics who are in the almshouses there are 41 blind, 189 insane and 241 feeble-minded, these classes, with the children, making almost one-half of the jail population! There is plenty of work for the Charities Aid Association to do before all these wrongs are righted. And there are few states that have not the same sort of work before them.

Women on Charity Boards in Maryland.—It is a matter of congratulation to Maryland that two women have been appointed upon an important charity board. Dr. Mary Sherwood and Miss Kate McLane have accepted positions on the Bayview Board of Baltimore. Dr. Sherwood is a sister of Dr. Sidney Sherwood, Associate Professor of Economics of the Johns Hopkins University, and took her medical degree at the University of Zurich, Switzerland, after graduating at Vassar College. She is a director of the Arundell Club, and one of the Board of Managers and Medical Staff of the Free Evening Dispensary for Working Women and Girls. She is director of physical training at Bryn Mawr School, visiting physician of Bryn Mawr College, and lecturer upon pathology at the Women's Medical College, Philadelphia.

The Mayor of Baltimore wishes also to appoint a lady upon the jail board, a position in which the right woman could wield a great influence. Prof. E. R. L. Gould has been speaking in aid of this reform. The *Baltimore News* quotes him as follows:

"The propriety of appointing competent women to such posts is not only evident on theoretical grounds, but has been abundantly justified by experience elsewhere. In Massachusetts, women are members of the State Board of Lunacy and Charities, of the State Board of Commissioners of Prisons, of the State boards of education, overseers of the poor, probation officers and trustees of State primary reform schools. They are also members of State boards of charities and correction in New Hampshire, Connecticut, New York, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin and Colorado. They are members of boards of managers of various State institutions where women and children are inmates, besides the foregoing commonwealths, in Michigan, Missouri and a few other states. In Rhode Island and Pennsylvania the Governors appoint women as visitors to all public institutions caring for women and children.

"Abroad, women serve as overseers of the poor in England, Sweden, France and in Germany and Norway wherever the Elberfeld system of relief is in operation. They are eligible as members of public school boards in Australia and England, 136 women having been elected to these positions in the latter country in 1892. Two women were elected members of the municipal council of Stockholm in 1894. They are eligible for membership in parish councils in England under the recent parish councils act, and they have possessed a limited municipal suffrage since 1868.

"Indeed woman's participation in various public functions, and notably in the administration of benevolence and correction, is a well established practice in many countries. The best evidence of her fitness and usefulness is the rapid extension of the privilege to render social service in so many lands.

"I have by no means attempted an exhaustive survey, but have simply enumerated instances occurring to me at this time.

"The attitude of our municipal and State executives toward this important question offers a useful hint to private institutions of philan-

thropy, whose clientage is in part made up of women and children. In such cases the best and wisest administration can only be accomplished by the coöperation of competent men and women."

False Ideas About Imbeciles.—It is to be wished that there might be some careful statement made as to the degree of feeble-mindedness that it is safe to allow at large in the community and that which should be placed in custodial institutions. There is great diversity of opinion on this matter in this country and the views of experts in England differ from those here. An English writer says: "The Americans are rather fond of euphuisms and call workhouses almshouses, the supposition being that the inmates will not know that they are maintained by the State. In the same way an institution for imbeciles would be called an institution for the feeble-minded. . . . They have such institutions more or less in every State."

We wish it were true that every State made provision for this class. The same writer goes on: "There is not sufficient classification and differentiation between the imbecile and the feeble-minded. They are quite distinct. The latter might be strengthened and by individual care be developed into ordinary rational beings. . . . To put the feeble-minded into large institutions would not be a solution of the problem; each child must be dealt with individually and on its own merits. Much can be done by the doctor's advice, by sending them to the sea side, by drilling, etc. The London school board report of work in special cases gives much interesting information. From it we gather that there are six such centres in London containing 265 children, 153 boys and 112 girls."

Only the experienced superintendent of an institution for the feeble-minded can be trusted to judge as to the fitness of returning feeble-minded children to the community. After reading the paper on "Care of the Adult Feeble-Minded" presented by Mr. Ernest Bicknell, of Indiana, at the meeting in Faribault last October, in which he gives startling instances of the propagation of the feeble-minded by marriage, one feels the great importance of the public being accurately informed as to this subject. Can a child that is really feeble-minded ever be "developed into an ordinary rational being?" Is there not a difference between the child whose mind is slow and lethargic and the one which through actual deficiency in brain structure may be classed among the feeble-minded? The wise doctor who will illuminate this whole subject will do a great deal toward making it easy for legislators and others to decide as to measures to meet the actual state of things.

Dr. Shuttleworth, an English authority, sees in work the best means of meeting the condition of imbecility. He says: "The word 'feeble-minded' has in America taken the place of the perhaps more scientific term 'imbecile.' . . . The Americans have grappled the question more firmly and with greater breadth of view than has been done here. Not only are their schools for feeble-minded children supported by public funds, but in several states there are also custodial departments

or institutions for feeble-minded adults, who are employed in fairly remunerative labor, such as farm work or laundry work. For all, whether children or adults, it is most important to find congenial occupation. Indeed, if asked from experience to recommend the best amelioration of mental feebleness he should unhesitatingly say appropriate work."

The Decrease of Women in Almshouses.—Mr. William P. Letchworth has just completed an inspection of the poorhouses in the counties of Allegany, Cattaraugus, Chautauqua, Erie, Genesee, Niagara, Orleans, and Wyoming in the State of New York. He is now preparing a report on these institutions which will be presented to the Legislature with the annual report of the State Board of Charities. The *Buffalo Courier* prints some of the views of Mr. Letchworth on the results of his investigation:

"It is a curious and suggestive fact that while the number of men has gradually increased in these poorhouses the number of women has steadily decreased. The whole number of inmates in the poorhouses in the Eighth Judicial District at the time of my last general inspection was 1,228. Of this number 801 were men and 375 were women. There were 689 males in the poorhouses in 1869 as against 871 in 1895, and 537 females in 1869 as against 357 in 1895. The removal of the insane from the poor houses since 1869 does not materially affect the comparison, as the number of insane men and women in these institutions in this district were about the same.

"Various opinions are given as to the cause. My own opinion is that it may be attributed to the increased avenues open to women for profitable employment and the larger use of spirituous liquors and tobacco by men. Moreover, women who become enfeebled and dependent often find a refuge in the families of relatives or friends, where they can, by looking after the children or doing some light work, very greatly lessen or entirely meet the expense of their support. When a man's infirmities or disability drive him from the field or the workshop to the house there is but little, if anything, that he can do to aid in his support, and if his dependency is caused by habits of dissipation he usually becomes a nuisance in the family home and at length finds his way to the poorhouse.

"In the great city almshouses of New York and Brooklyn there continues to be a greater number of women than men, and the relative increase is slightly greater. In 1869 the males in the New York City and Brooklyn almshouses numbered 3,770 and the females 3,856, including the insane; in 1895 the males numbered 7,785 and the females 8,070, including the insane.

"A certain class of women in these cities are exposed to greater temptations and lead more dissolute lives than any class of women in the country; and while the opportunities for the employment of women are greater in these cities, the compensation is often at starvation rates. The greater number of liquor saloons in the cities are a con-

stant temptation to the head of the family to spend his earnings and thus pauperize the wife, who goes to the almshouse when she can no longer bear the strain, while the children go to the orphan asylum.

"Not an infrequent factor in the demoralization of the female sex in New York and Brooklyn is the abominable tenement house system, under which it would seem impossible to rear young girls in ways of purity and chastity.

"There is no doubt that the large number of paupers in the New York City and Brooklyn almshouses may be largely accounted for by immigration, which leaves at the seaboard those verging upon dependency, while the hardy and independent, with more means, push westward; but this will not account for the preponderance of women over men in these institutions."

The Charities of Indianapolis.—The eleventh annual report of the Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis bears the title of "The Charities of Indianapolis" and it includes brief reports of fourteen of the twenty-five associated organizations. This is an excellent way of presenting the work as a whole to the criticism and approval of the community. In several respects the work accomplished has been admirable. Think of the influence for thrift in the 23,632 visits of the collectors for the Dime Savings and Loan Association! But of even greater moment is the work in connection with the children of the city. Says the general secretary, Mr. C. S. Grout: "A committee has been appointed to assist in the great work of caring for neglected and uncared for children who have failed to avail themselves of advantages of a free school education, preferring to live upon the streets and alleys in filth and rags. With the proper coöperation and concerted effort, most of these children who have roamed about in neglect will be brought into better and more wholesome surroundings. One year's work of the Society with the teachers of the public schools has demonstrated the great value of a combined effort in giving proper care to the otherwise neglected young of our city. Nearly a thousand children have felt the touch of the work of the Society's visitor with that of the teacher." Many letters have been received from the principals of the public schools bearing testimony to the benefit conferred by these visitors. We glean a sentence here and there:

"Children have been hunted up and clothed, on condition that they were apt in school; and the visiting committee has seen that the parents did keep them in.

"By these means we are enabled to give the child a taste of higher, better life, and arose in him a wish to rise above his environments, while the parents are compelled to make an effort to give their children the birthright of every American boy or girl, *i. e.*, a free school education.

"The school regulations require pupils to be clean in person and dress, hence parents have to better the sanitary condition of their homes in order to meet this regulation, and as cleaning up means work

they are taken out of their lazy, shiftless ways and become more energetic, thrifty and honest."

"I think that a much better understanding between several indifferent parents and the teachers of their children has been brought about. Children have been sent to school more regularly and in much better condition and the kindly feelings of parents have been promoted.

The visits of refined and cultured ladies, having authority, in the homes of the lowly, are invaluable, teaching them how to live and giving them high ideals of their obligations and responsibility. Persons in the darkness of ignorance are no more than children and need just the judicious leading upward that your organization has kindly tendered."

A Wise Appointment.—Dr. J. C. Carson, Superintendent of the Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children, in his annual report mentions an appointment which reflects credit on the Governor of the State: "Dr. Kate A. Hathaway, who had creditably and efficiently performed the duties of medical assistant in this institution since 1888, concluded to give up professional work, and resigned her position on the first of last March. We are pleased to state that Governor Morton, appreciating Dr. Hathaway's valuable service and experience at this institution and her high educational and professional standing, has seen fit to honor her with an appointment on the board of managers of Craig Colony for Epileptics. In this capacity, her counsel and services can not fail to be of much value to the State and to the Colony." When boards of management are always made up of people fitted by knowledge and experience to manage institutions there will be a great improvement in the care of delinquents and defectives.

Dr. Carson's report contains an excellent outline of the history of the Syracuse institution from its inception in 1845 to the present time.

OTHER NOTES.

The State Charities Aid Association of New York.—The following extract from the annual report of this Association is a very hopeful statement, showing what a few people actively interesting themselves in the conduct of public affairs may accomplish. This work has not, of course, all been accomplished in one year, but that these results have been achieved is the hopeful fact. Among the more important results of this year's work are the following:

1. Legislation has been secured for the separation of charitable from correctional institutions in New York City through the division of the existing department into two separate departments, a Department of Public Charities and a Department of Correction.

We need not dwell upon the value of this legislation. The importance of a complete separation of the administration of institutions for the care of the sick, the aged and infirm, the insane, the epileptic, the blind, and for infants and sick children, from that of institutions for

the care of criminals, vagrants, disorderly persons and workhouse rounders, is self-evident.

2. Legislation has been secured providing a system of cumulative sentences for habitual offenders committed to the workhouse for intoxication, disorderly conduct or vagrancy. The repeated imposition of five or ten days' sentences had proved an entire failure as a deterrent. In 1894 36 per cent. of the men and 84 per cent. of the women acknowledged previous commitments. Since this law took effect the census of the workhouse has been very greatly reduced.

3. Following in the line of the investigation undertaken by the Association in anticipation of the meeting of the Constitutional Convention, an extended inquiry has been made as to existing conditions in this city in regard to the care of destitute and wayward children. From the bills rendered by institutions receiving payments under general laws and now on file in the Comptroller's office, covering 8,356 children, the age of each child and the period of residence in the institution has been ascertained. It was found that 1,726 children, or 21 per cent. of the total number, had already been in the institutions between five and ten years, and that 209 children had been in the institutions from periods ranging from ten to fourteen years. The results of this inquiry, with other statistics bearing upon the subject, were issued as Publication No. 63.

4. A draft of rules, regulating the reception and retention of inmates as public charges in private institutions, pursuant to Section 14 of Article VIII of the Revised Constitution, was formulated and submitted to the State Board of Charities at a public hearing in January, 1895.

5. The supervision of dependent children placed out in families has been actively carried on by the Agency for Dependent Children of Newburgh, established in October last by the Committee of this Association for the city of Newburgh. The average population of the greatly overcrowded Children's Home maintained by the city, has been reduced from 48 to 30. The Agency has 63 children under its supervision at the close of the year. The Visiting Committees of Allegany and Richmond counties have visited the dependent children of those localities.

6. The work of the sub-committees on providing situations for mothers with infants has been very largely increased, 277 situations having been provided during the past year, a total of 462 since the establishment of the Agency June 1, 1893.

7. The poorhouses and almshouses of 45 counties, including the large number of institutions under the charge of the Department of Charities and Correction of New York City, and those of Kings County, have been visited with greater or less regularity by the visitors of the Association.

The Charitable "Snowball."—Some months ago we printed a note in regard to a "chain letter" sent out in behalf of some sick girl who

had been told that if she collected a certain number of cancelled postage stamps admission would be secured for her to a hospital. We take the following from the London C. O. S. *Review* in regard to this method of raising money:

There are fashions in charity as well as in dress, and like all other fashions they have a tendency to recur at varying intervals. About the years 1888 and 1889, there was a rage for collecting funds for different charities by means of "snowballs." Probably few of our readers have not at some time or other lamented over the receipt of one of those dreadful circular letters, asking them to send three stamps and to write to two friends, and so continue the chain. At last, however, even a long-suffering, charitable public could bear no more, and the "snowball" ceased to charm, and consequently to roll, and for a while it was heard of no more. But it was not dead, as some people were perhaps sanguine enough to hope; it had only retired from the ken for a brief period, and has now come forth like a giant refreshed to run its race anew. We regret to see that such a well known institution as Guy's Hospital should have been induced to give its sanction to this very objectionable mode of collection. It is true that the authorities appear to have had doubts on the subject; they even consulted their solicitors as to the legality of the method; but in the end, though not exactly approving of it, they did not refuse to profit by it. The scheme has been started by a lady and is on a very lordly scale. The circular requests the recipient to send six stamps and so write to three friends, and the chain is to be continued till the number fifty is reached. The originator, no doubt, did not calculate the sum of money that would thus be obtained, but we can inform her that if the chain is continued unbroken up to twenty-five, the total amount raised will be £10,891, 10s. 6d., an endowment beyond the wildest dreams of any hospital. But the starters of "snowballs" appear to be entirely destitute of the smallest powers of calculation.

The history of some "snowballs" of the past ought to be amply sufficient to convince anyone of the folly of this method of collection. They were started for every sort of object—to place an orphan in an asylum; to supply a piano in a remote parish; to educate a promising boy, about whom no inquiries were answered; while one ingenuous collector requested funds to enable him to start a small business, to furnish a house and to marry, a happy event which had been too long delayed. Another "snowball," set in motion to raise funds for a rescue home, ran for about a year, at the close of which period £512 had been raised. The lady who originated it, and the bishop who gave it his sanction, finding that a "snowball" is a somewhat unmanageable concern, were most anxious to stop the flow of circulars. They accordingly advertised in all the leading papers, closing the fund, but in spite of their efforts, that "snowball" went on its way quite undisturbed for two years longer. Letters arrived at the rate of a thousand a week, while the bishop was overwhelmed with inquiries as to the *bona fides* of the lady who was collecting in his name. The circular letter, through constant recopying in every sort of handwriting, departed so far from the original as to be almost unrecognizable. The address of the lady—Brook Villa, Spencer Road, Bedford—became Bank Villa, Bangor; Brook Street, Bronte Villa; North Villa; Spenceville; Brook Willow; Forth Villas; Bronse Villas, Brighton.

The Bishop of Bedford was transformed first into the Bishop of Bangor, and then into the Bishop of Durham. Putting aside the possibility of deliberate fraud, through some recipient of the circular inserting his own name and address and so cutting off the funds, let us look at the actual results of a "snowball" such as this. The rescue

home altogether received about £1,200. The circular requested a donation of threepence and letters to two friends, therefore for every threepence sent to the fund, threepence was paid to the post office for stamps, so that the expenses of collection were exactly cent per cent. This estimate of course makes no allowance, either for the trouble of writing the letters or for the hundreds of inquiries that were also posted.

Another "snowball" which was started to assist a mission, went on for five years, and for aught we know, may be still proceeding on its silent way. The name of the originator, Baker, was transformed into Bailey, Barber, Babier; while Ridgeley Oak, Reigate, Surrey, became Ridgeley, Surrey, Midgeley House, Reigate, Bridgeley Hall, and Bridge House.

But it seems unnecessary to give any further examples of the dangers of this mode of collection. The possibilities both of fraud and of mistakes are infinite. There is no power that can stop the "snowball" when once started; there is no check on the receipts, there is a tremendous loss in collection, and there is no proof of the good faith of the collectors. The residence of the lady who is collecting for Guy's Hospital is called Heather Lea, which in itself is a most regrettable circumstance, as it is easy to foresee the multiplicity of changes through which such an uncommon name is sure to pass. The chain, as we have mentioned before, is to be continued up to fifty, but if it continued unbroken long before that term is reached, the whole population of the globe will be engaged in the unprofitable task of asking each other for sixpences.

In this connection, the following table may be of interest. The original starter of the "snowball," it must be remembered, sends out three letters, and each of the recipients is requested to send on three letters to three friends, and then these nine friends each send again to three friends, and so on, with the following results:—

1
3
9
27
81
243
729
2,187
6,561
19,683
59,049
177,147
531,441
1,594,323
4,782,969 *
14,348,907
43,046,721 †
129,140,163
387,420,489
1,162,261,467
3,486,784,401
10,460,353,203 ‡

* 15th Term.—More than the population of London.

† 17th Term.—More than the population of Great Britain and Ireland.

‡ 22nd Term.—More than the population of the world. Consequently the chain must come to an end unless everyone is to be asked twice.

Death of John Glenn, Esq.—Just as we go to press word comes of the death of that staunch friend of charity organization and practical philanthropist, John Glenn, of Baltimore, known throughout this country and even abroad for his splendid service in behalf of the unfortunate. We reprint below the brief sketch of his life as published in the Baltimore *Sun*:

Mr. John Glenn died yesterday morning at his home, 1103 N. Eutaw Street after a brief illness. He was a son of the late Judge John Glenn of the United States District Court, and was born Feb. 20, 1829. Mr. Glenn studied at St. Mary's College, in Baltimore, and later was graduated from college. Intended for the bar by his father, he studied law in the office of the late Severn Teackle Wallis, but never completed his law studies owing to the loss of his eyesight, which came upon him suddenly at the age of twenty-one. For some time after this Mr. Glenn lived at "Hilton," the family country seat near Catonsville.

Mr. Glenn was an ardent States' rights man and was a strong southern sympathizer during the civil war, although he refused to take the oath of allegiance either to the Confederacy or to the Union. He claimed that his allegiance was to his State. Because of his outspoken opinions he was confined for some time by the federal authorities, first in the Gilmor House and afterward at Fort Norfolk.

Near the close of the war Mr. Glenn the real estate business, and for thirty years was identified with the business interests and development of Baltimore. A substantial office building at 12 St. Paul St. was erected by him and bears his name.

Mr. Glenn was a man of public spirit and ability, his lack of sight seeming to have intensified his other powers. About eight years ago he became interested in the Charity Organization Society. He was chairman of the northeastern district and later of the society's executive committee. Mr. Glenn was a keen student of social problems and urged the advisability of teaching in colleges and universities not only theoretical sociology, but practical philanthropy, as well. He took especial pleasure in supplementing the class instruction at the Johns Hopkins University on these questions with practical instruction in the work of the district boards of charity. Mr. Glenn was one of the prime movers in the organization of the Friendly Inn and Wayfarers' Lodge. He was a member of the Protestant Episcopal Church and was a vestryman of St. Timothy's, Catonsville. In this church he took a profound interest and usually served as its lay delegate in the diocesan convention. In matters concerning the blind and their education Mr. Glenn took a deep interest from his own affliction. He was a member of the board of directors of the Maryland School for the Blind.

He was married in 1859 to Miss Anna Correy Smith of Philadelphia. His wife died about two years ago. Their two children survive—John Glenn, of Baltimore, and Mrs. Charles Biddle, of Philadelphia. Mr. John M. Glenn, of Baltimore, is his nephew.

Charity Organization Society Summary.

	FEBRUARY, 1896.	FEBRUARY, 1895.
Financial.		
Current receipts from contributions.....	\$ 4,282 00	\$ 4,178 50
Current expenses.....	4,913 00	4,950 59
New members.....	39	27
Registration Bureau.		
Requests for information.....	482	409
Reports sent out.....	757	770
District and Central Office Bureau Work.		
New cases, through the District Offices..	283	685
New cases, through Registration Bureau.	387	1,463
New cases through Joint Application Bureau.....	203	
Visits by agents.....	4,030	4,529
Consultations at offices.....	640	679
Street Beggars.		
Total number dealt with.....	68	64
Of whom were warned.....	5	8
Of whom were arrested and committed...	63	56
Wayfarer's Lodge and Wood Yard. (516 West 28th street.)		
Days' work given....	1,570	1,995
Loads of wood sold.....	1,275	1,306
Park Avenue Laundry. (589 Park Avenue.)		
Women employed.....	37	41
Days' work given.....	415	479
Receipts for work done.....	\$ 773 85	\$ 854 90
Penny Provident Fund. (101 East 22d street.)		
Stamp stations	307	299
Depositors (about).....	52,187	50,359
Deposits	\$35,282 26	\$34,894 36
Workrooms for Unskilled Women. (49 Prospect Place.)		
Days' work given out.....	360	502
Night Office.		
Total applicants.....	258	607
Total aided.....	46	232
	(278)	